

## EXPLORING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE OF MANAGERS THROUGH THE LENS OF SEX AND GENDER ROLE IDENTITY

SMARTY P. MUKUNDAN<sup>1</sup> & ZAKKARIYA K.A.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>DDU Kaushal Kendra (DDUKK), CUSAT, Kerala, India

<sup>2</sup>Professor, School of Management Studies, CUSAT, Kerala, India

### ABSTRACT

*Emotional Intelligence (EI) is a vital competency for managers for several job outcomes in today's workplaces and it is claimed that it varies across sex. As we are witnessing a greater number of females into managerial roles in the last two decades an investigation of EI through the lens of sex and the gender role identity that managers assume, might be of interest as there is a paucity of conclusive research findings in this direction. Data was collected from 140 managers employed in the service sector. BEIS (Bhattacharya Emotional Intelligence) and Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) short form was used to measure EI and gender role identity respectively. The emotional intelligence of managers was explained better by gender role identity than sex. The findings of the study show that majority of the respondents were androgynous and higher EI Scores were reported. Significant differences were found between feminine, masculine and androgynous category of gender role identity.*

**JEL Classification:** M12

**KEYWORDS:** Sex, Gender Role Identity, Androgyny, Emotional Intelligence, Manager & Service Sector

**Received:** Mar 03, 2019; **Accepted:** Mar 23, 2019; **Published:** Jun 17, 2019; **Paper Id.:** IJHRMRAUG20193

### INTRODUCTION

The workforce composition in terms of sex ratio is changing rapidly in the recent times, as we have more women coming into managerial positions nowadays, as part of the affirmative action programs in an organisation and due to changing status of women in the society. Yet the organisational expectations in terms of emotion management and regulation are often expected to be in a sex stereotyped manner during interpersonal interactions. It is often said that women are better in decoding, perceiving emotion related cues than men (Eagly, 1987; Sanchez-Nunez, 2008) and considered as a feminine intelligence. It is also reported that sociocultural factors interact with gender and their emotions. So, is it the sex differences or 'within sex' differences shaped by socio-cultural factors that explains Emotional Intelligence?

### EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI) AT WORKPLACE

'Emotional Intelligence' is described as the ability to perceive, use, regulate and understand emotions in one self and others and known to vary in individuals as they integrate this knowledge in their thoughts and actions during their interpersonal interactions at workplaces (Mayer & Salovey, 1997) and this competency is encapsulated as one of the key competencies in almost all the human resource decisions. It is a set of abilities that can be learned

and developed with one's efforts. There are evidences that say individuals with high EI display higher self-awareness, empathetic interpersonal communication, adaptability and better coping skills (Wong & Law, 2002).

There have been innumerable research evidences of emotional intelligence benefitting individuals on a personal level and in businesses as well. Emotional intelligence is related to life satisfaction, affect, health, wellbeing and stress reaction in both adults and children on a personal front (Ciarrochi, Chan & Caputi, 2000; Dawda & Hart, 2006; Slaski & Cartwright, 2002) and has tall claims for success in life (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997). Emotional intelligence is also reported to have a significant relationship with performance (Joseph et al., 2015; Lam & Kirby, 2002) and workplace outcomes. Emotional intelligence was also seen important in organisational factors such as organisational change (Dhingra & Punia, 2016; Singh, 2006); leadership (Ashkanasy, 2002; Dabke, 2016); perceiving occupational stress (Newton et al., 2016). From the above research findings, it's quite undisputable that EI is a required competence for today's managers.

## **SEX AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE**

Goleman (1995) and Bar-on (1997) initially had hypothesised that emotional intelligence differed in males and females. However, many of the empirical researches later concerned on gender differences in EI. With increased women in work force now and more to come (Elder & Johnson, 2001; Wirth, 2001; Rupavatham, 2017), a concept like emotional intelligence which is primarily concerned with expression and management of emotions, it was postulated that women are better in expression of emotions and hence will have better scoring on emotional intelligence (Garner & Estep, 2001; Gartzia et al., 2012; Thory, 2012). A biological explanation for this says that the cerebral processing of emotions differs between men and women, that women's biochemistry is better prepared to consider one's own emotions and those of others as certain part of the brain dedicated to emotional processing seems to be larger than men (Petridges & Furnham, 2000; Fernandez-Berrocal et al., 2012). The explanation centred on social aspects, indicates that women are groomed to be more caring and emotional, while men are taught to suppress emotions related to sadness, guilt, fear vulnerability etc (Eagly, 1987). Women are also said to be better in decoding emotions via non-verbal cues and have better emotional knowledge than men (Sanchez-Nunez, 2008).

In psychological and sociological studies, it's mostly found that women score higher than men in EI (Mayer & Geher 1996; Mayer et al., 1999; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003; Van Rooy et al., 2006; Joseph & Newmann, 2010). Studies that contradict the above findings was also found. While women score higher in emotional awareness, empathy, and adept in interpersonal relationships, men also scored high in certain different attributes that make up emotional intelligence like self-confidence, optimism and adaptability and has better stress tolerance, assertiveness, impulse control etc than women. Instances of men scoring higher than women is also found (Kaneez, 2006; Ahmad et al., 2009; Khalili, 2009). Though most of the evidence point to women having better scores in emotional intelligence, there is no consensus on the specific EI dimensions on which women perform better (Fernandez-Berrocal et al., 2012). Also, studies focussed on gender differences often yielded inconclusive results (Sanchez-Nunez, 2008). Organisation expectations on behaviour are based often on gender stereotypes, but there are certain socio-cultural factors that comes in their psychic development (Adler 2002; Rupavatham 2017). Given the existing research evidence, biological sex alone cannot be considered as an explanatory variable to show differences in emotional intelligence.

## **GENDER ROLE IDENTITY (GRI) AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE**

Biologically speaking, being ‘male’ or ‘female’ is only a division of the species, but these terms are often interchangeably used as adjectives as man, woman, masculine, feminine etc in discussions and writings (Claes, 2001; Woodhill & Samuels, 2003). The term gender is often seen by psychologists as socially constructed wherein individuals are trapped into being stereotypes, which people choose to maintain as part of their customs. Gender does not equal behaviour, although we assume people to behave in a gendered way and that gendered behaviour comes from gender role identity (Woodhill & Samuels, 2003).

Therefore, gender always operates in interaction with other variables (as cited in Fernandez- Berrocal et al., 2012). An analysis of the sex inculcating identity formation by and large shaped by the cultural factors needs to be explored. Hence looking ‘within sex’, in terms of the gender role identity which is a powerful component of personality would perhaps throw light on the differences. Gender role identity is defined as a function of the expression of masculine and feminine traits rather than biological sex. Masculinity includes traits that are characterized by an instrumental orientation or a cognitive focus on “getting the job done”. That includes traits like dominance, ambition, cynicism, aggressiveness etc. Femininity includes traits that are characterized by an interpersonal orientation or an “affective concern for the welfare of others” and have traits like consideration, dependence, tact and compassion explaining them (Bem, 1974). Bem also proposed another classification of ‘androgynous’ who scored similarly high in both masculine and feminine traits and ‘undifferentiated’ category who shows low levels of masculine and feminine traits.

In Jungian psychoanalytic theory the mixing of masculine and feminine characteristics or the balance of “anima” and “animus” is termed as being ‘androgynous’ which is a term derived from Greek wherein ‘andro’ means man and ‘gyne’ means woman. This concept has reference to Indian mythology as the “ardhanareeshwar” concept depicted as half male and half female symbolically- a concept that highlights the dual aspects of life’s forces (Mathur & Salmi, 2006). Bem proposed that masculinity and femininity should be viewed as distinct and relatively independent clusters of traits. A person can score high on one dimension but low on the other (e.g., feminine or masculine); high on both dimensions (androgynous), or low on both dimensions (undifferentiated). According to Bem, people who scored high on ‘masculinity’ or ‘femininity’ acted in a sex stereotyped way and viewed and acted through this gendered lens. Being androgynous is transcending the sex role stereotypes, displaying a range of possible behaviours by adapting as per the demands of the situation, facilitating the development of human attitudes, feelings and behaviour (Srivastava & Nair, 2011). Several studies have suggested that a combination of masculinity and femininity provides the maximum benefits rather than being stereotyped as masculine or feminine (Guastello & Guastello 2003). From a manager’s perspective, being androgynous helps them to become effective at work (Sargeant, 1981) and perceived more positively by their subordinates (Jurma & Powell 1994; Lay, 1994).

The present study is an attempt to explore the relation between sex, gender role identity and emotional intelligence. With increased women into the workforce presently and in future, an analysis of EI in terms of sex and gender role identity concurrently is not much explored. It is observed that, previous studies examined differences in EI between male and female, without considering the socialisation of the individual (Thory, 2012) and how they identify themselves (Ardolina, 2013). Therefore, explaining individual differences in emotional intelligence based on sex alone may not be conclusive enough. An understanding of both sex and gender role identity can add to the understanding of the behaviour of either sex in the workplace (Powell & Butterfield, 2015). Therefore, the objective of the study is to extend the studies on EI

differences in sex and analyse in terms of gender role identity and add on to the existing literature. The paper explores the relationship between these three variables amongst managers employed in the service sector operations. Therefore, we pose the following research questions (1) Is there a significant difference in EI in terms of sex amongst managers (2) Is there a significant difference in EI of managers across gender role identity.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

Data was collected from 140 managers employed in service sector operations from the state of Kerala.

### Measures

To measure EI, BEIS- the Emotional intelligent instrument developed by Bhattacharya, Dutta and Mandal (2004) was used. It has 40 items of which 20 are positive statements and 20 are negative. This can be scored in two levels- a total score reflecting the general EI Score and second is assessing the branch scores of EI namely-Appraisal of negative emotions & positive emotions, Interpersonal conflict and difficulty, Interpersonal skill and flexibility, Emotional facilitation and goal orientation. This instrument has been used widely amongst studies conducted amongst managers in an Indian context (Bhattacharya & Sengupta, 2007) and reported a Cronbach alpha value of 0.868 in our study.

The BSRI- short version was used to assess gender role identity. This classify an individual's gender role identity as masculine, feminine, androgynous and undifferentiated. It contains 30 items, 10 characteristic each for femininity and masculinity and 10 characteristic of social desirability bias. Items are rated from 1 (never or almost never true) to 7 (always or almost always true). BSRI has been used extensively in numerous research studies and is still being used as valid tool to measure sex-linked expressive and instrumental personality attributes (Colley et al., 2009). The scale reported a reliability coefficient of 0.934, which was found to be satisfactory.

### Results

Response were obtained from 140 respondents, and of the total respondents, 38% were females and 62% males of which 26% are from the IT/ITES, 39% from banking, 22% from the financial services and 13.6% from the hospitality sectors.

## SEX AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The sex wise EI scores of the respondents show that males have higher total EI as well as in the branch EI scores too. The mean values of emotional intelligence (Table No:1) attributes in terms of appraisal of negative emotions & positive emotions (*ne*, *pe*), Interpersonal conflict and difficulty (*ic*), Interpersonal skill and flexibility (*isf*), Emotional facilitation and goal orientation (*efg*) was found to be {(ne-male (45.90), female (43.43); (pe-male (35.40), female (33.50); (ic-male (20.99), female (19.96); (isf- male (21.61), female (21.81); (efg- male (19.05), female (18.25) )} high in all EI branch scores for males than the female counterparts. The total EI Scores were also found to be high with males (MV-143.01) than females (MV-137.01).

To further analyse whether a significant difference exists in EI across sex, an independent sample t Test (See Table 1) was performed.

**Table 1: Summary Results of t-Test and Descriptive Statistics for Emotional Intelligence by Sex**

	Sex						t
	Male			Female			
	M	SD	N	M	SD	n	
Total EI Scores.	143.01	18.98	87	137.02	16.09	53	2.36
Negative emotions (ne)	45.91	9.56	87	43.43	9.71	53	1.48
Positive emotions (pe)	35.40	7.87	87	33.51	8.22	53	1.36
Interpersonal conflict & difficulty(ic)	20.99	5.03	87	19.96	4.60	53	1.21
Interpersonal skill and difficulty (isf)	21.61	4.45	87	21.81	5.14	53	-246
Emotional facilitation & goal orientation (efg)	19.05	3.93	87	18.25	4.28	53	1.13

Note: Significant at \*p <.05

The results show that though males had higher mean EI scores, significant statistical difference does not exist between males and females in terms of the total EI scores and the branch scores too.

## GENDER ROLE IDENTITY AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Using the BSRI scale, respondents were classified into androgynous, feminine, masculine and undifferentiated category based on the gender role identity they assume. 108 of N =140 were categorised as androgynous, 12 as feminine and 20 undifferentiated (Table 2).

**Table 2: Cross Tabs of Gender Role Identity Across Sex**

			Gender Role Identity		
			Androgynous	Undifferentiated	Feminine
Sex	Male	N	68	8	11
		% within sex	78.2	9.2	12.6
		% within Gender role identity	63.0	40.0	91.7
	Female	N	40	12	1
		% within sex	75.5	22.6	1.9
		% within Gender role identity	37.0	60.	8.3
Total		N	108	20	12
		% within sex	77.1	14.3	8.6

When a cross tabulation between sex and gender role identity were done, it was found that majority of males (78%) and females (75%) belong to the androgynous category. Yet another interesting finding was that typical male stereotypes were not found at all though majority of the respondent managers were males and 12% of the males belong to the feminine category. Amongst female managers, majority of them fell into the androgynous category. Mean values of EI Branch scores were then analysed and found that mean scores of attributes that make up EI remained high for androgynous profiles as well as feminine profile, but higher score were reported for all the five attributes for the feminine profiles (Table no: 3).

**Table 3: Mean Scores of EI Dimensions Across Gender Role Identity**

EI Dimensions	Gender Role Identity					
	Androgynous		Feminine		Undifferentiated	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Negative Emotions (ne)	47.40	6.32	51.08	10.21	43.84	9.60
Positive Emotions (pe)	34.95	7.01	41.67	2.93	33.86	8.25
Interpersonal skill & Conflict (isc)	22.10	4.69	23.50	3.83	20.00	4.88
Interpersonal skill & flexibility (isf)	22.15	4.42	24.17	3.64	21.32	4.81
Emotional facilitation & goal orientation (efg)	19.00	3.06	22.58	2.19	18.27	4.18

To get a better understanding of the EI branch score differences across the gender role identity groups, multivariate test of differences was applied. MANOVA allows the dependent variables to be correlated and gives much more accurate results than ANOVA for detecting group differences (Sekharan & Bougie, 2016). The General Linear Model (GLM) procedure was run with the gender role identity categories as the independent variables and the EI branch scores as the dependent variables. Prior to the analysis, the basic assumptions for conducting a MANOVA test like the independence of observations, normality, multicollinearity, and the homogeneity of variance were checked. Pearson's correlation was performed between the dependent variables and found to be of moderate range. Additionally, Box's M value was 87.05 associated with a p value of .004 which was considered non-significant ( $P < .001$ ) as per the guidelines of Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) in the case of unequal sample sizes as in our case.

**Table 4: Multivariate Test Results of Gender Role Identity Groups Across EI Branch Scores**

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Partial Eta Squared
Pillai's Trace	.181	2.68	10.00	268.00	.091*

Note: Significant at \* $p < .05$

**Table 5: Test of Between Subject Effects**

	Androgynous		Feminine		Undifferentiated		F	Eta <sup>2</sup>
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Negative Emotions (ne)	47.40	10.21	51.08	6.31	43.84	9.59	3.93*	.054
Positive Emotions (pe)	34.95	7.01	41.67	2.93	33.86	8.25	5.44*	.074
Interpersonal skill & Conflict (isc)	22.10	4.68	23.50	3.82	20.00	4.87	4.05*	.056
Interpersonal skill & flexibility (isf)	22.15	4.42	24.17	3.64	21.32	4.80	2.12	.030
Emotional facilitation & goal orientation (efg)	19.00	3.06	22.58	2.19	18.27	4.18	6.61*	.088

Note: Significant at \* $p < .05$

The results were significant for gender role identity (*Pillai's trace*  $F=.181$ ,  $p=.004 < .001$ ) with an effect size of .091 explaining a 9.1% variance in EI branch scores due the gender role identity. The univariate test result showed significant differences across gender role identity for negative emotions ( $F=3.93$ ,  $p=.022$ ), positive emotions ( $F=5.44$ ,  $p=.005$ ), interpersonal conflict and difficulty ( $F=4.05$ ,  $p=.020$ ) and emotional facilitation and goal orientation ( $F=6.60$ ,  $p=.002$ ) the branch score that make up the total EI Score. Post hoc LSD tests revealed that there were significant differences reported among the androgynous and feminine GRI groups vs the undifferentiated GRI groups for negative emotions, positive emotions, interpersonal conflict and difficulty and emotional facilitation and goal orientation, wherein the feminine group reported higher mean values.

## DISCUSSIONS

Our analysis proves that there exists no significant relationship between sex and emotional intelligence. While several studies reported no significant difference across sex on their total score measuring emotional intelligence (Hopkins & Bilimoria, 2007), there are evidences that tend to differ significantly in the EI dimensions across sex (Meshkat & Nejati, 2017). In a study done among adolescent children on gender, gender role and anxiety, results indicated that gender by itself is not able to explain the relationships (Stassart et al., 2014). However, this theoretical approach of explaining in terms of sex is problematic as per sex psychologists, as they claim that gender by itself does not have any explanatory power unless and until it is coupled with socio demographic or socioeconomic variables (Adler, 2002; Fernandez-Berrocal et al., 2012)

When verified in terms of the gender role identity it was found that there were significant differences in emotional intelligence across the different groups. Though the ratio of males was greater in the study individuals with strong male stereotypes couldn't be identified. This pattern of gender role identity could be perhaps explained due to the multiple roles they need to perform, and experience gained in that capacity. Generally, managers are expected to adorn several roles in them and due to this fact managers are likely to display both rational and empathetic role ie masculine and feminine traits in them (Claes, 2001). Perhaps this could be the reason behind most of the managers falling in the androgynous category in our study. According to the gender schema theory, being androgynous is an ability of utmost importance today where rigid sex-role differentiation had already outlived its utility. Androgyny allows "an individual to freely engage in both 'masculine' and 'feminine' behaviours, instead of being limited by a narrowly defined self-concept as masculine or feminine". Hence, we can infer that managers with higher EI scores are now shedding their typical gender stereotypes and taking roles that are both masculine and feminine, thus understanding the context. Here instead of displaying a sex congruent behaviour, an approach where the underplay of emotions is understood and a context specific gender behaviour that blends both 'masculine' rationality and 'feminine' expressiveness is adopted by the managers.

A good percentage of the female respondents also belonged to the androgynous category. In an earlier study done in Kerala context, amongst female managers in lower and middle level positions a similar observation was found (Hussain et al., 2012). Evidences indicate androgyny is linked to higher emotional intelligence (Gaustello & Gaustello, 2003; Ardolina, 2013). Gaustello (2003) in his study says that emotionally intelligent people would express a wider range of gender role behaviour and preferences than, would people who were not so emotionally knowledgeable and further supported that androgyny predicts high emotional intelligence in his study. Rupavataram (2017) in a similar study done with managers also found significant differences in emotional intelligence across gender role identities with androgyny explaining the highest EI.

While most of the respondents fall in the androgynous category, a small percentage (8.57%) of the respondents fall in the category 'feminine' and have reported the highest mean EI scores in all dimensions is worth exploring. Yet concluding that a feminine orientation gives higher EI will not hold good as the proportion of the gender role profiles was found to be uneven in the present study. However, the earlier research findings that expression of feminine traits contributes to higher emotional intelligence levels perhaps can explain the higher emotional intelligence scores of 'feminine' gender role identities (Thory, 2012). It was found that it was the men who were adopting feminine attributes in our study. This could be attributed as it is said that in white collar professional occupations men are feminizing their skills in accordance to the societal and organisational norms. According to Thory (2012), this is referred as 'feminised masculinity' and has found increased acceptance in society and workplaces nowadays.

The goal of the present study is to explain the differences of sex vs gender role identity on emotional intelligence of practicing managers. It was found that the assumption that higher scores in emotional intelligence could be better explained with gender role identity rather than gender stereotypes. This paper finds a lot of managerial implications as new questions and renewed approaches is needed as linkages between gender role identity and emotional intelligence is now established. Considering the role of EI in organisations, developing managers in the balance conceptualisation of 'masculinity' and 'femininity' traits may lead to positive outcomes in organisations. Alternatively making decisions regarding promotions or performance should not solely be based on sex, instead adopt HR practices considering the 'within sex' differences like the gender role identity.

## LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The major limitation of the study is that it could have been replicated with larger sample so that an even distribution of gender role identity could have obtained to gain a better understanding. An unequal proportion of males and females in the sample is yet another limitation of the study. Several other variables like age, religion, socioeconomic level, parenting etc could be explored to better understand the socialisation process and how it influences the development of emotional intelligence. Further research could contemplate on larger samples and make it more comprehensive by including outcome variables like managerial effectiveness, success or performance etc.

## REFERENCES

1. Adler, A. (2002). *The collected clinical works of Alfred Adler (Vol. 1)*. Alfred Adler Institute.
2. Ahmad S, Bangash H, Khan S, (2009), *Emotional Intelligence and Gender Differences*, *Sarhad Journal of Agriculture*, 25(1), 127-130
3. Angayarkanni, R. (2018). *Impact of Emotional Intelligence on Job Performance Among Working Women in IT Sector (Chennai): An Empirical Study*.
4. Ardolino, A. (2013). *The Impact of Sex, Gender Role Orientation, and Extroversion on Emotional and Social Intelligence*. *College of St. Elizabeth journal of the behavioral sciences*.
5. Ashkanasy, N. M. (2002). *Studies of cognition and emotion in organisations: Attribution, affective events, emotional intelligence and perception of emotion*. *Australian Journal of Management*, 27(1\_suppl), 11-20.
6. Bem, S. L. (1974). *The measurement of psychological androgyny*. *Journal of consulting and clinical psychology*, 42(2), 155.
7. Bem, S. L. (1981). *Bem Sex-Role Inventory*. Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.
8. Bhattacharya M, Dutta A K, Mandal M K., (2004), *Factor structure of emotional intelligence in India*, *Psychological studies*, 49, 142-146.
9. Brotheridge, C. M., & Lee, R. T. (2008). *The emotions of managing: An introduction to the special issue*. *Journal of managerial psychology*, 23(2), 108-117.
10. Cavallo, K., & Brienza, D. (2006). *Emotional competence and leadership excellence at Johnson & Johnson*. *Europe's Journal of Psychology*, 2(1)
11. Ciarrochi, J. V., Chan, A. Y. C., & Caputi, P. (2000). *A critical evaluation of the emotional intelligence construct*. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 28, 539-561
12. Claes M T. (2001). *women Men and Management Styles*, In: Loutfi, M.F. ed. *Women, gender and work; What is equality and how do we get there?* Geneva, International Labour office, 23, 385-404.
13. Cooper, R. K.; Sawaf, A. (1997). *Emotional intelligence in leadership*. Translate: Z. B. Ayman ve B. Sancar, Sistem Publishing, İstanbul.
14. Dawda, D., & Hart, S.D. (2006). *Assessing emotional intelligence: Reliability and validity of the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) in university students*. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 28, 797-812.
15. Day, A. L., & Carroll, S. A. (2004). *Using an ability-based measure of emotional intelligence to predict individual performance, group performance, and group citizenship behaviours*. *Personality and Individual differences*, 36(6), 1443-1458.



16. Dhingra, R., & Punia, B. K. (2016). *Relational analysis of emotional intelligence and change management: A suggestive model for enriching change management skills*. *Vision*, 20 (4), 312-322.
17. Eagly, A. (1987). *Sex differences in social behavior: A social role interpretation*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
18. Elder S, Johnson L J, (2001) *Sex-specific labour market indicators: What they show*, In: Loutfi, MF, ed. *Women, gender and work; What is equality and how do we get there?* Geneva, International Labour office, 251-269.
19. Fernández-Berrocal, P., Cabello, R., Castillo, R., & Extremera, N. (2012). *Gender differences in emotional intelligence: The mediating effect of age*. *Behavioral Psychology*, 20(1), 77-90.
20. Garner, P. W., & Estep, K. M. (2001). *Emotional competence, emotion socialization, and young children's peer-related social competence*. *Early Education and Education*, 12, 29
21. Gartzia L, Aritzeta A, Balluerka N, Esther B H (2012). *Emotional intelligence and gender: beyond sex differences*, *Annals of psychology*, Vol 28, No 2
22. Guastello, D.D. & Guastello, S.J. (2003). *Androgyny, gender role behavior, and emotional intelligence among college students and their parents*. *Sex Roles*, 49, 663-673.
23. Hopkins M.M, Bilimoria D. (2008). *Social and emotional competencies predicting success for male and female executives*, *Journal of management development*, vol 27, (1), 13-35.
24. Hussain, F. S., Vadhana, C. R., & Zakkariya, K. A. (2012). *Are women leaders breaking the gender-stereotype? A study on emerging androgynous leadership style among women in the context of globalization*. *International Journal of Physical and Social Sciences*, 2(10), 105.
25. Joseph, D. L., & Newman, D. A. (2010). *Emotional intelligence: An integrative meta-analysis and cascading model*. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95, 54-78.
26. Joseph, D. L., Jin, J., Newman, D. A., & O'boyle, E. H. (2015). *Why does self-reported emotional intelligence predict job performance? A meta-analytic investigation of mixed EI*. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(2), 298.
27. Jurma, W E & Powell, M L, (1994), *Perceived Gender Roles Of Manager And Effective Conflict Management*, *Psychological Reports*, 74(1), pp 104- 107.
28. Kalaivani, C. (2017). *Emotional Intelligence and Technology Addiction Among Higher Secondary School Students*.
29. Kaneez, U. 2006. *Emotional Intelligence among the Individual with Depression and without Depression. A Comparative Study*. Unpublished M.Sc. Dissertation
30. Khalili, A. (2009). *Gender Differences in Emotional Intelligence Among Employees of Small and Medium Enterprise: An Empirical Study*. *Journal of Managerial Sciences*, 2, 2.
31. Lam, L.T. & Kirby, S.L. (2002). *Is emotional intelligence an advantage? An exploration of the impact of emotional and general intelligence on individual performance*. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 142(1), 133- 145.
32. Lay M (1994), *The Value of Gender Studies to Professional Communication Research*, *Journal Of Business And Technical Communication*. 8(1), pp-58-91
33. Mandell, B. & Pherwani, S. (2003). *Relationship between emotional intelligence and TL style: A gender comparison*. *Journal of Business & Psychology*, 17(3), 387-404
34. Mathur, A. N., & Salmi, A. (2006). *The politics of disharmony in management of gender differences*. *Vikalpa*, 31(3), 81-93.

35. Mayer JD, Caruso DR, Salovey P. 1999. Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence. *Intelligence* 27:267–98.
36. Mayer, J. D., & Geher, G. (1996). Emotional intelligence and the identification of emotion. *Intelligence*, 22(2), 89-113.
37. Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). *What is emotional intelligence?* New York: Basic Books.
38. Meshkat, M., & Nejati, R. (2017). Does Emotional Intelligence Depend on Gender? A Study on Undergraduate English Majors of Three Iranian Universities. *SAGE Open*, 7(3).
39. Mohamed, N. A., Latief, S. A. A., Madbouly, N. M., & Rashid, E. A. M. A. (2017). The Effect of Emotional Intelligence Enhancement Program on Suicidal Ideations Among Attempted Suicide Adolescents. *IMPACT: International Journal of Research in Applied, Natural and Social Sciences (IMPACT: IJRANSS) ISSN (P)*, 2347-4580.
40. Newton, C., Teo, S. T., Pick, D., Ho, M., & Thomas, D. (2016). Emotional intelligence as a buffer of occupational stress. *Personnel Review*, 45(5), 1010-1028.
41. Powell, G. N., & Butterfield, D. A. (2015). The glass ceiling: what have we learned 20 years on? *Journal of Organizational Effectiveness: People and Performance*, 2(4), 306-326.
42. Raghavan, N., & Panboli, S. (2018). Measuring Emotional Intelligence of School Children—A Pilot Study. *IMPACT: International Journal of Research in Humanities, Arts and Literature*, 6(1), 207-218.
43. Rupavatham, S. R. (2017). Looking Beyond Biology: Does Psychological Sex-Role Matter More than Biological Sex for Emotional Intelligence? An Indian Perspective. In *Emotions and Identity* (pp. 137-156). Emerald Publishing Limited.
44. Sanchez-Nunez, M., Fernández-Berrocal, P., Montañés, J., & Latorre, J. M. (2008). Does emotional intelligence depend on gender? The socialization of emotional competencies in men and women and its implications. *Electronic Journal of Research in Educational Psychology*, No: 15, Vol 6(2), 455-474
45. Sargent A G (1981), Training for Androgynous Behaviour in Organisations, *Journal of Experiential Learning and Simulation*, 3, pp 37-46.
46. Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2016). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. John Wiley & Sons.
47. Singh, D. (2006). *Emotional Intelligence at Work: A Professional Guide*. SAGE Publications India.
48. Slaski, M., & Cartwright, S. (2002). Health, performance and emotional intelligence: An exploratory study of retail managers. *Stress and Health: Journal of the International Society for the Investigation of Stress*, 18(2), 63-68.
49. Spence, J. T., Helmreich, R., & Stapp, J. Ratings of self and peers on sex role attributes and their relation to self-esteem and conceptions of masculinity and femininity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 1975, 32, 29-39
50. Srivastava, N., & Nair, S. K. (2011). Androgyny and rational emotive behaviour as antecedents of managerial effectiveness. *Vision*, 15(4), 303-314.
51. Stassart, C., Dardenne, B., & Etienne, A. M. (2014). Specificity of gender role orientation, biological sex and trait emotional intelligence in child anxiety sensitivity. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 71, 165-170.
52. Tabachnik, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2013). *Using multivariate statistics* (6<sup>th</sup> edn). Boston, É.-U. U.: Pearson.
53. Thory, Kathryn (2012), A Gendered Analysis of Emotional Intelligence in The Workplace: Issues and Concerns For Human Resource Development, *Human Resource Development Review*, 12 (2), pp 221-244.

54. Van Rooy, D. L., Dilchert, S., Viswesvaran, C., & Ones, D. S. (2006). *Multiplying intelligences: Are general, emotional, and practical intelligences equal?* In K. R. Murphy (Ed.), *A critique of emotional intelligence* (pp. 235-262).
55. Wirth L, 2001, *Women in Management: closer To Breaking Through The Glass Ceiling*, In: Loutfi, MF, ed. *Women, gender and work; What is equality and how do we get there?* Geneva, international Labour office, 239-249.
56. Wong, C.-S., & Law, K. S. (2002). *The effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence on performance and attitude: An exploratory study*. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 243–274
57. Woodhill, B. M., & Samuels, C. A. (2003). *Positive and negative androgyny and their relationship with psychological health and well-being*. *Sex Roles*, 48(11-12), 555-565.

